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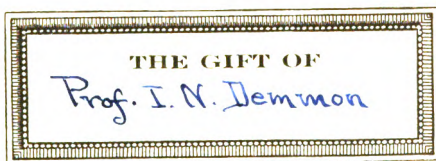
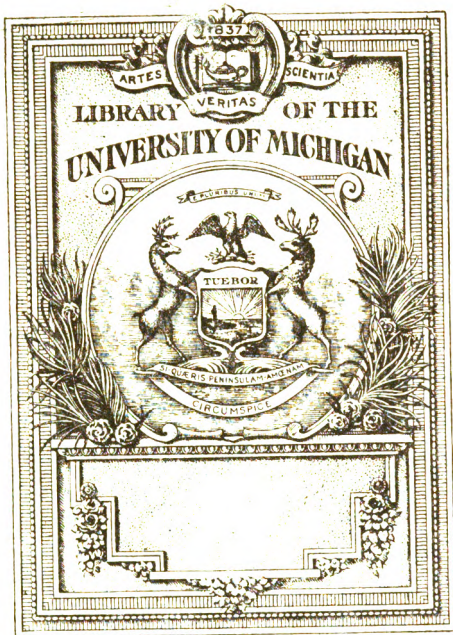
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ADVANCED PAGES
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ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

By GEORGE P. BROWN

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PART I.

**IDEAS, THOUGHTS, WORDS, AND
SENTENCES.**

THE PURPOSE OF PART I.

The commanding purpose of Part I is:

1. To lead the pupils to distinguish between ideas and thoughts, and the words and sentences that express them; and,
2. To show that the relations of words, phrases, and clauses in a sentence depend upon the relations between the ideas that form the thought which the sentence expresses.

ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

GENERAL STATEMENTS.

1. Language (from *lingua*, the tongue) is composed of the words and sentences used by a people to express their ideas and thoughts.

2. In your study of Language Lessons you have learned *what forms* of words and sentences must be used to express your ideas and thoughts in a proper way.

3. You are now to begin the study of Grammar (from *gramma*, a letter). You will learn in this study how the words and sentences of the English language are related to the ideas and thoughts they are used to express.

4. Language Lessons teach *what forms* of words and sentences to use in expressing our thought.

5. Grammar teaches *why* these forms, and not others, must be used.

6. It will be well to remember that the ideas and thoughts of all the people in the world are very much alike. The Englishman calls an object "horse"; the Frenchman calls the same object "cheval"; the German, "Pferd"; but they all have the same *idea* in their minds. They use different words or signs to express it. So, too, they all have similar *thoughts* about things, but they put words together in different ways to make their sentences. People do not differ in their thoughts so much as in the symbols they use to express them.

7. You will need, first, to learn something of the nature of the ideas and thoughts that language expresses; you will then be better able to understand why English sentences are formed as they are.

CHAPTER I.

NATURE OF IDEAS.

WHAT IDEAS ARE.

8. What is this you see in my hand? (A pencil.) We call the pencil a thing or an object. Name other objects you see in the room.

Close your eyes and take something out of your desk. What is it? How can you tell what it is? (By the sense of touch.)

Close your eyes again and listen. What do you hear? (Strike the bell.) How do you know it is a bell? (By the sense of hearing.)

[Let the pupils distinguish objects by smell and by taste.]

How have you gained your knowledge of these objects? What senses have you used?

Things that we know by the use of the senses we call **external objects**.

9. You may now look at this apple I hold before you. Notice its color; its size; its shape; the stem-end; the blossom-end, etc.

I now put the apple out of sight. Do you seem to see it in my hand behind my back? Of what color is it? Of what size? Can you see the stem-end? the blossom-end? What can you see with your mind's eye in the center of the apple? Where are the seeds? Of what color are they? How would it sound if I should snap it with my finger?

Can you imagine how it would taste? (Let each one state what flavor the apple seems to have.) Can you seem to smell it? Which seems more distinct, the color or the smell?

You have now made a mental picture of the apple. This mental picture is an *idea*.

10. I now present again the external apple. Close your eyes and form an *idea* of it.

You may now look at the color of the apple. Close your eyes and form an idea of the color.

Form an idea of the smell of it; of the taste; of its weight. Does it seem to you to be mellow or hard?

Form an idea of your cat; your dog; your garden; your home; your church.

Which do you see more distinctly, the *object* apple, when I present it to you, or the *idea* you form of the apple afterwards?

Which appears clearer, the idea you now form of your father, or the idea of a partial stranger?

11. **External objects** are things that we can see, hear, feel, smell, or taste.

12. **Ideas** are the mental pictures, or notions, we form of things.

[The class should have more practice than is here given in the use of the different senses in perceiving objects, and in comparing the clearness of ideas gained through one sense with those gained through another, and in comparing the distinctness of the ideas formed when the object is not present with their sense-perception of it when it is present. Much practice may be necessary in order to make clear the distinction between the object as perceived by the senses and the idea or notion of it that is retained in the mind.]

IDEAS ARE OF DIFFERENT KINDS.

13. Object-Ideas. When you examine the ideas you have been using you find some of them to be ideas of things or *objects*.

Name objects you saw on your way to school. As you recall them you form ideas of them; describe your ideas by telling the different sense-elements (color, taste, smell, etc.) of which they are composed.

14. Ideas of things or objects are called **object-ideas**.

15. Attribute-Ideas. When you recall the idea of the apple you think of it as having *qualities*. What is its color? Its taste? Its shape? Is it heavy or light? Is it ripe? Name other qualities.

16. These qualities that belong to the apple are its **attributes**.

Name the qualities (attributes) of this crayon, that you discover by sight; of the clock; of the map; of a bird you have seen; of a tree with which you are familiar; of the full moon, etc.

What attributes of this crayon can you discover by the sense of touch? of taste? of hearing? Form an *idea* of a rose. What color has it? What odor? Can you recall the flavor?

Do you discover that the *object-ideas* have attributes that correspond to the attributes of the objects perceived by the senses?

17. When we form ideas of *things* we are compelled to form ideas of their *attributes*. In fact, all we know about an object by the senses is its attributes. If a

person had no senses whatever he could have no perception of external objects, and no *ideas* of them.

You may now close your eyes and form an idea of this book I have in my hand. You have now an object-idea in your mind. What color does it appear to have? Is it hard or soft? heavy or light? new or old? useful or worthless?

Since the ideas of the objects are object-ideas, the ideas we form of their attributes may be called what?

[Additional exercises should be given, if needed, to make clear the distinction between sense-objects and their attributes, and object-ideas and their attributes.]

18. Attributes of Action. Name some action of a bird (flying); of a fire (burning); of a dog; of a lion; of a tiger; of a robin; of a crow.

Objects may have characteristic *actions* as well as qualities.

When I think of the tiger as *cruel* I am thinking of a distinguishing quality. When I think of him as *crouching* I am considering a characteristic action. The action of *crouching* is an attribute of the tiger no less than is the quality *cruel*.

What are some characteristic actions of the following objects? A horse; a cow; a cat; a serpent; a bee; a lark; a rose; a nettle; an apple; a tree; the dew; the snow; the cold, etc.

Name *quality-attributes* of these objects.

19. You have now discovered that *actions* as well as *qualities* are attributes of objects.

Name the action-attributes of objects selected from the school-room; from the school grounds; from the garden; from the farm.

[Continue this exercise until attributes of quality and of action can be readily distinguished.]

20. You have learned that the mind is furnished with the following kinds of ideas:

Object-ideas.

Attribute-ideas { Quality-ideas.
Action-ideas.

Make a definition of each class that will tell what you have learned about it.

Objects have other attributes than *qualities* and *actions*. You will learn about these later.

[These first definitions are all partial and tentative.]

21. **Connecting-Ideas.** We have here on the table some apples. Let us compare them. Which two are the largest? Which two are the smallest?

You say, *The green apple and the red apple are the two largest.*

Note carefully what ideas you have. What are the two object-ideas? (Green-apple and red-apple.)

What are the attribute-ideas? (Green, red, largest.)

Green is the attribute of one apple; *red* is the attribute of the other; but *largest* is the attribute of *both taken together*. The green apple and the red apple must be taken together to make the *two largest*.

The idea *and* connects, in the thought, the two object-ideas, *green-apple* and *red-apple*, so that the same attribute may be asserted of both.

So, too, we may compare the russet apple with the yellow apple and think, *The russet apple or the yellow apple is sweet*. The idea *or* connects two object-ideas, so that the same attribute can be affirmed of either.

22. Supply the connecting ideas in the following: A beautiful — fragrant rose. Neither sweet — sour. The spring is cold — late. The sun — the moon give light.

Select from thoughts given by the teacher the connecting ideas.

23. Ideas that join together other ideas in the thought are **connecting-ideas**.

24. Select objects in the school-room having the same qualities and state your thoughts about them, as: "This book and the blackboard are black." What are the connecting ideas?

Form ideas of objects at your home that are alike in some particular and state your thoughts. What are the connecting ideas?

Select objects having similar actions and state your thoughts. What are the connecting ideas?

Select objects either one or the other of which has a certain quality, and state your thoughts, as: "Either glass or lead is brittle." What are the connecting ideas?

[This exercise should be continued and varied to suit the ability of the learner until the connecting ideas that unite other ideas of *like relations* in the thoughts are readily discovered.]

25. Conjunction-ideas. If you observe closely the examples you have studied you will note that the connective in each of these cases joins ideas holding the *same rank* (like relations) in the thought. The importance of noting this peculiarity will appear later in your study.

Connecting ideas that unite other ideas having like relations in the thought are called **conjunction-ideas**.

26. Copula-idea. Supply the connecting ideas in the following: Gold — malleable. Lead — heavy. Copper — useful. Illinois — a state. Cicero — an orator. Washington — the first President.

When we think of the Baldwin apple with reference to its flavor our thought is, The apple — tart. When we think of sugar with reference to its flavor our thought is, Sugar — sweet.

Notice what is the office in the thought of the idea you supply in each case. It connects the ideas, *sugar* and *sweet*, by asserting or stating that *sweet* belongs to *sugar*; *sugar is sweet*.

When one thinks "sweet apple," or "apple sweet," he does not connect the attribute with the object by a connective idea. But when we think "apple is sweet" we connect the attribute with the object by the asserting idea *is*.

Long ago it was decided to call this asserting or linking idea the *copula* (bond or coupler). It connects other ideas, and so belongs to the general class of connecting ideas. But it connects by *asserting* that one idea is an attribute of another. The *conjunction* never asserts. Note the difference between

John *and* the boy,
and
John *is* the boy.

27. The *copula-idea* is that which *asserts* that an attribute-idea belongs to an object-idea.

28. Point out the *conjunction-ideas* and the *copula-ideas* in the following: The winter is chill. The trees and the grass are green. The mountain and the squirrel were unfriendly. Beauty and truth are kindred. The man or the boy was mistaken. Not the orange but the apple is sweet.

^ [Before proceeding to the next topic, sufficient practice should be given in classifying ideas to make the learner familiar with—

1. Object-ideas.

2. Attribute-ideas { of quality.
of action.

3. Connecting-ideas { uniting ideas of the same rank in thought,
—*Conjunction*.
uniting ideas that assert the attribute-idea of the object-idea,—*Copula*.

In a succeeding lesson the learner will discover other kinds of ideas that the mind may have.]

CHAPTER II.

NATURE OF THOUGHTS.

29. You have now learned that some of our ideas are the mental images of sense-objects. Every sense-object may stimulate the mind to form an idea corresponding to it. These sense-objects have attributes and the mind forms attribute-ideas corresponding to these sense-attributes.

You have also learned that the mind is furnished with connecting ideas that join its object-ideas and attribute-ideas together in different ways.

30. How a Thought is Formed. Declare that some attribute belongs to this book. You say, *The book is useful.*

When you affirm that the attribute *useful* belongs to the object *book* you form a **thought**.

The attribute-idea *useful* is connected with the object-idea *book* by the asserting idea *is*.

Think some attribute as belonging to your mother. You think, *Mother is kind*. This is a thought. Of what is it composed? (The object-idea *mother*, the attribute-idea *kind*, and the asserting idea *is*.)

Of what are the following thoughts composed?

My cat is playful.

The sun was sinking.

Longfellow is inspiring.

Washington was brave.

Make, in a similar way, thoughts about the moon; the winter; the snow; the roses; the sparrows; the elephant; the ostrich.

Of what ideas is each thought composed? What kind of connecting idea does each thought have?

Are thoughts internal or external to the mind? What of sense-objects?

31. A judgment is formed when an attribute is asserted of an object.

A judgment and a thought are one and the same thing.

What are the three essential ideas in every judgment? [Object-idea (subject), attribute-idea (predicate-attribute), asserting idea (copula).]

32. Form a judgment about the weather; the sun; the stars; Washington; Patrick Henry; San Francisco; Lake Superior; the Mississippi River.

Name the three essential ideas in each judgment.

[1. Care should be taken in these lessons not to confuse *ideas* with *words*; nor *thoughts* with *sentences*. It is by conversation that pupils will most easily learn to direct attention to the internal ideas, and distinguish them from the external objects of which they are counterparts, and from the words which are the sense-symbols of these ideas. Writing sentences upon the blackboard will not help to do this. The teacher should keep steadily in mind that the purpose of these first lessons is to make the pupil familiar with his *ideas* and *judgments* as something different from the words by which he expresses them, and from the sense-objects to which they refer. This may be the first time in his experience that he makes this distinction.

2. In Section 1 it was stated that people use language to express their *ideas* and *thoughts*. Words are not symbols of the objects themselves, but of our *ideas* of them. Persons differ about things because they form different ideas of them. In Grammar we learn how *words* and *sentences* are related to the *ideas* and *thoughts* which they express. (See Section 3.) In this study, therefore, we must consider *words* and *sentences* in their relation to *ideas* and *thoughts* alone. When we form a judgment about anything it is our idea of that thing about which the judgment is formed. We have been calling it the object-idea in order to distinguish it from the external thing, or sense-object. But this object-idea is the object about which the judgment is formed. No judgment can be formed except about an object-idea. It is proper to consider the *object-idea* as the object about which we think, and the *attribute-idea* as the attribute

of this mental object. We shall be justified, therefore, in dropping the terms object-idea and attribute-idea, and in using only the terms *object* and *attribute*, whenever it is not necessary to distinguish sharply between the sense-object and an object-idea. It is *object-ideas* and not objects of *sense-perception* that are the subjects of thoughts. It is *our ideas* of objects that we think and talk about.]

33. Subject of Thought. When we think, *The sun is bright*, we assert that the attribute bright belongs to the object sun. The object-idea *sun*, about which the attribute-idea *bright* is asserted, is called the *thought-subject*.

It is impossible to form a thought unless one has in mind a thought-subject. This thought-subject is an object-idea. Not every object-idea is a thought-subject, but it becomes one when an attribute is asserted of it. When you think, *The rain is falling from the clouds*, the object-idea *rain* is a thought-subject, but the idea *clouds* is not, though it is an object-idea. But when you think, *The clouds are very black*, another thought is formed of which *clouds* is the thought-subject.

34. A subject of thought is an object-idea of which something is asserted.

EXERCISES.

35. Make judgments by asserting something of the following object-ideas: England; Hiawatha; Robinson Crusoe; La Fayette; steam; electricity; ice; oranges; etc.

What is the subject of each of the judgments you have formed?

State the thought-subject of each of the following thoughts:

The dog carried a basket.
 The soldier thinks of his home.
 The mason builds a wall.
 Flowers grow in the garden
 The prisoners are guilty.
 The horse is dead.
 The book is on the table.

State what is asserted of the thought-subject in each of the above judgments.

36. Predicate of Thought. You have seen that every judgment has a thought-subject, and also something that is asserted of the subject; as, *The wind is blowing.*

That which is asserted of the subject in this judgment is called the **thought-predicate**. Make a definition of the thought-predicate.

[Justify the name *predicate* (proclaim—speak forth) for this part of the thought by studying its derivation in the dictionary.]

EXERCISES.

37. Assert a single attribute as belonging to each of the following object-ideas: Chair (the chair is useful); dictionary; crayon; Cicero; Patrick Henry; Homer; Chicago; New Orleans.

What is the subject of each thought? What is the predicate of each thought?

Predicate two attributes of the following subjects, and join the attributes by conjunctive ideas: George (George was honest and truthful); our school; our class; this school-house; our state; our president; our soldiers.

Connect the following parts of judgments by appropriate asserting ideas (copulas) so as to form complete thoughts:

George Washington — wise.

Daniel Webster — eloquent

Klondike — far away.

New York — our largest city.

Benedict Arnold — a traitor

The Spaniards — brave.

Point out the thought-subject and thought-predicate in each of the judgments.

[Let the pupils analyze a large number of thoughts into subject and predicate. It will be better at first to analyze the judgments they themselves make about things. They can then tell better what idea or combination of ideas they intend to make the subject or the

predicate, because they first construct the thought before analyzing it. If they shall combine several attribute-ideas with the subject-idea to make the complete subject of thought, it will be well. Let them do the same in constructing the predicate. The essential thing is to have them see just what is the whole of that about which they think, and the whole of that which they think of it. Next let them analyze thoughts given orally by the teacher. This gives them practice in interpreting the language of others. Let them take the arithmetic and analyze statements in to-morrow's examples.]

DEFINITIONS—A REVIEW.

38. *An idea* is a notion in the mind that may be used in forming thoughts.

Complete the following thoughts by supplying appropriate ideas:

The dog is — at the moon.

A — was singing among the —.

I prefer — to sour —.

Six — seven are —.

[Let the pupils tell their thoughts, omitting certain ideas which the other members of the class supply.]

39. *An object-idea* is the notion of some object of which some attribute may be predicated.

Supply appropriate object-ideas to complete the following thoughts:

— was the first president of the —.

Longfellow was the — of the poem, —.

The — is the largest — in South America.

[Let the pupils make similar exercises.]

40. *An attribute-idea* is the notion of some attribute that may be predicated of an object.

Supply appropriate attribute-ideas to complete the following thoughts:

Under the — chestnut tree

The — smithy stands.

It was a — day in June, when, if ever, come — days.
 The dew was — fast.
 The — breath of the flowers gave delight.

[Let the pupils make many such exercises. They will find it an interesting test of each other's knowledge of quotations from different authors.]

41. A *connecting-idea* is a notion that joins together two parts of the thought.

Complete the following thoughts by supplying appropriate connecting ideas. Distinguish the conjunctive from the copula connectives:

Time — tide wait for no man.
 She was his care, his hope, — his delight.
 The birds — migrating.
 The pupils — studious.
 The breath of the morn — sweet.
 The gently falling rain — refreshing the earth.
 The warm sunshine — pleasant.
 The evening — the morning — the first day.
 The rain — upon the earth forty days — forty nights.

[Let the pupils test one another with many exercises in which both conjunctive and copula connectives are omitted. Encourage them to select these from the literature with which they are familiar.]

42. A *thought* or *judgment* is composed of ideas some of which form the subject, and the others, the predicate.

Supply thought-subjects to the following predicates:

- surrendered at Santiago.
- was the father of his country.
- was a traitor.
- is the capital of the United States.

[Let the pupils compose thoughts and tell the subject, the class supplying an appropriate predicate. The teacher can add much to the interest of these exercises, as suggested above, by making them tests of the pupils' knowledge of scientific facts, historical events, or quotations from literature.]

CHAPTER III.

IDEAS AND THEIR EXPRESSION.

CLASSES OF IDEAS AND OF WORDS.

43. Object-Ideas and Object-Words. You learned in the former chapters that the mind furnishes itself with different kinds of ideas by studying and thinking about external objects. You discovered three distinct classes of these ideas which are —

1. Object-ideas.
2. Attribute-ideas.
3. Connecting-ideas.

The most common way of expressing our ideas to others is by the use of *words*.

Express ideas by gesture; by expression of the face; by maps; by pictures.

Write down the *names* of ten different objects in the room. Let one of these be the clock. What is the difference between the *word* clock and the *sense-object* clock?

Close your eyes and form the mental picture, or object-idea, of the clock.

What is the difference between this object-idea and the word? (The object-idea is the notion in the mind; the word *clock* is the sign or name, written or spoken, of that notion or object-idea.)

44. Words which denote object-ideas may be called **object-words**.

EXERCISES.

45. Distinguish between the object-ideas and the object-words in each of the following:

Forests disappear.

(The *idea*, forests, is the picture that I form in my mind of large collections of trees. The *word*, forests, is the group of letters used in writing it, or the group of sounds used in speaking it.)

Mary plays with her doll.

Friends, Romans, countrymen! Lend me your ears!

Gold is a metal.

Every horse and every ox was stolen.

Trees in winter are bare.

The dog, the horse, and the elephant are intelligent.

The moon revolves around the earth.

[Let the pupils express thoughts orally and distinguish between the idea and the spoken word. Vary the exercise and continue it until the class can separate in their thought the idea from the word.]

CLASSES OF OBJECT-WORDS.

46. Nouns. When the object-word is the *name* of the object it is called a **noun**; as horse, ball, wagon, John.

Why select this name for object-words? (See dictionary.)

Point out the nouns in the reading lesson, and form the ideas which they name.

47. The Pronoun. In the command, "*Physician, heal thyself*," what word is the name of an object? What other word denotes the same object? Is "thyself" a name?

Point out the object-words that are names and those that are not names in the following:

The mother had a picture of her son, but it was not a good likeness of him.

How many object-ideas in the judgment? Which are names?

48. We have now discovered that there are object-words that are not names. These are called **pronouns**.

Why so called? (See dictionary.)

Point out ten pronouns in the reading lesson. In what do they resemble nouns? In what do they differ from nouns?

49. If we say that a noun is a word that denotes an object-idea by giving it a name, we may say that a pronoun is a word that denotes an object-idea without giving it a name.

Make a definition of a noun that shall distinguish it from a pronoun; of a pronoun, that shall distinguish it from a noun.

From our study it seems that every *word* that denotes an *object-idea* but does not give it a name may be called a *pronoun*. Let us keep this in mind and see how it will appear later.

TEST QUESTIONS.

50. What is an object-idea?

What is an object-word?

What classes of object-words have we discovered?

What is a noun?

What is a pronoun?

How does a pronoun resemble a noun?

How does a pronoun differ from a noun?

ATTRIBUTE-IDEAS AND ATTRIBUTE-WORDS.

51. **The Adjective.** In chapter I. you discovered that object-ideas may have attribute-ideas belonging to them. (Page 11.)

You learned also that such attributes may be—

1. Attributes of *quality*.

2. Attributes of *action*.

Name some qualities of the rose. Name some actions of the clock. To express these attributes in language we use *attribute-words*.

What are the attribute-words in the following: Beautiful snow; freezing weather; brilliant music; delicious flavor; hopeful spirit; happy homes; joyous children; sour grapes.

What kind of attributes are expressed by these attribute-words?

What are the attribute-words in the following: Flowing rivers; babbling brooks; barking dogs; winning ways; pouring rain; helping hands; encouraging words; falling snow; the cawing crow; the crawling worm; the growing corn; the revolving earth.

What attribute-ideas do these words express?

52. Words that denote attributes of objects, whether qualities or actions, are **adjectives**.

Justify this name by its derivation. (See dictionary.)

Point out the adjectives in your reading lesson and state whether they express qualities or actions.

53. Make a definition of the adjective that will include what you have learned.

When we describe an object we state one or more of its attributes. A complete description would express all of its attributes. (Objects can have other attributes than those of quality or action. We shall learn about those later.)

Describe your desk by stating three attributes of quality of it; the school-house; the weather; the roses; the robins; the ocean.

Describe the earth by giving two attributes of action belonging to it; the wind; the season; the governor; the superintendent; the farmer; the carpenter; the merchant.

[The term *attribute* is used in grammar in the limited and technical sense described in the preceding pages. You will discover later that it has other meanings in literature.]

EXERCISES.

54. Point out the adjectives in the following, and state whether they express qualities or actions of the objects:

The fragrant flowers and the singing birds are expressing thanks.

Summer is warm.

Winter is cold.

Wise men are respected.

The army was victorious.

The lark now leaves his watery nest.

The giddy multitude is not always judicious.

Thy songs are sweeter to mine ear
Than to the thirsty cattle rivers clear.

On a green shady bank profuse of flowers,
Pensive I sat.

The cloud lay cradled near the setting sun.

His pencil was striking, resistless, and grand ;
His manners were gentle, complying, and bland.

55. The Adverb. Thus far you have studied only that class of attributes which belong to object-ideas. Can other ideas have attributes?

When you think of the *swiftly running brook* you think that the brook has the attribute *running* belonging to it, and also that the action, running, is *swift*. So, when we think of the *slowly rising moon*, the action of *rising* belongs to the moon, and *slowly* belongs to the rising. It is a *slow* rising. When we think of the *sweetly singing birds*, the singing belongs to the birds and the sweetness belongs to the singing. *Singing* has the quality *sweet*, *rising* has the quality *slow*, and *running* has the quality *swift*. That is, the idea *sweetly* is an attribute of the action of the birds, the idea *slowly* is an attribute of the action of the moon, and the idea *swiftly* is an attribute of the action of the brook.

56. It now appears that attributes of objects can themselves have other attributes belonging to them.

There are, therefore, two classes of attributes:

1. Attributes of objects.
2. Attributes of other attributes.

57. Point out the attribute-words in the following, and state whether an attribute of an object or an attribute of an attribute is expressed.

I bear round berries, gray and red,
Rootless and rover though I be.

The spirit of night is swiftly
Walking o'er the restless wave.

The lamp was shining brightly, and the nightingale was sweetly singing in the tree.

A merry brown thrush is up in the tree.
I am willingly and gladly obedient.

You have now discovered two classes of words that denote attribute-ideas; these are *adjectives* and *adverbs*.

58. Adjectives are words that denote attributes of objects.

59. Adverbs are words that denote attributes of other attributes.

How do adverbs resemble adjectives?

How do adverbs differ from adjectives?

EXERCISES.

60. Point out the adverbs in the following: What attribute-ideas do they denote? What attribute-ideas do they modify?

The slowly tolling bell was heard.

The man was running hurriedly through the streets.

A fine mist falling steadily gave discomfort.

Ulysses, joyfully spreading his sails, moved out to sea.

The swiftly flying clouds foretold a storm.

He was strictly honest.

The birds are singing sweetly.

Still waters are commonly the deepest.

They have been long absent.

He is improving mentally and physically.

[Select from the reading lesson the adverbs. Exercises in forming thoughts containing adverbial ideas and in pointing out the adverbs expressed in selected sentences should be continued until the pupils can readily distinguish between an adverb and an adjective, and between an adverbial idea and an adjective idea. If pupils discover and offer as illustrations adjective or adverbial phrases or clauses, accept them, for the great point here is the adjective and adverbial function or relation.]

EXERCISES.

Insert appropriate adverbs to complete the following sentences:

— and — we laid him down,

From the field of his fame fresh and gory.

The thunder rolls — and the lightning flashes —.

The thief — approached.

We welcome you —.

Point out the adverbs in the following. What attribute-words do they make more definite in meaning?

He was walking slowly down the stairs.

She was speaking quickly and angrily.

The deep blue sky contrasted pleasantly with the dark green foliage.

Gently falling rain.

Slowly moving clouds.

Deep blue sea.

Deliciously fragrant roses.

He was strictly honest.

He was speaking loudly when suddenly the bell struck the hour.

Oh tenderly the haughty day,
 Fills the blue urn with fire.
 Go, forget me, and to-morrow
 Brightly smile and sweetly sing.

TEST QUESTIONS.

61. What classes of words have you considered in this chapter? What classes of ideas do they denote?

Ideas	{ Object-ideas. Attribute-ideas	{ Attributes of objects. Attributes of attributes.
Words	{ Object-words Attribute-words	{ Nouns. Pronouns. Adjectives. Adverbs.

CONNECTING-IDEAS AND CONNECTING-WORDS.

62. **The Verb.** I show to you this yellow rose. I now remove it. You have an idea in your minds of a yellow rose. You perceive that *yellow* is a quality of the rose without forming a judgment about it. But if some one should call the rose you have in mind a *white* rose, you would immediately think, *It is not white; the rose is yellow.* You have now asserted or declared that the attribute *yellow* belongs to the rose, and that *white* does not. In the former case you formed an *idea* of a yellow-rose. Now you have formed a thought or judgment in which you assert, *The rose is yellow.* Suppose some one should say, *The rose is poisonous.* This would be adding an attribute that you would judge did not belong to the rose, and you would think, *The rose is not poisonous.*

In both of these cases you have so joined the ideas as to form a judgment. You have joined them by asserting or declaring that *yellow* is an attribute of the rose you have in mind, and that *poisonous* is not. This *asserting idea* is, therefore, a *connecting idea*, which joins the other ideas so as

to form a judgment by affirming or denying the predicate of the subject.

63. What are the appropriate asserting ideas to complete the following thoughts ?

Apples — nutritious. Water — a food. Solomon — a wise man. The sun — shining now in the Philippines. London — the largest city in the world. London — directly east of Boston. The Filipinos — an enlightened people. Glass — malleable. Snow — white. Man — mortal. Virtue — its own reward. The sun — black. The storm — gathering. To-morrow — Friday.

[Extend this exercise until the pupils have it clearly in mind that the function of the verb-idea is so to connect the predicate and the subject as to form a judgment. Improve, also, the opportunity suggested by the above exercise to induce the pupils to think real live thoughts that they believe to be true, instead of merely filling the blanks so as to complete the form or symbol of the thought without filling it with meaning.]

64. The word that expresses the asserting idea in a judgment is called a **verb**.

This name is from the Latin *verbum*, which means *the word*. As the verb-idea is necessary to the thought, connecting the thought-subject with the thought-predicate, so the verb-word is the essential word in the sentence, connecting the sentence subject with the sentence-predicate.

65. Point out the *verbs* in the following:

Second thoughts are ever wiser.

A bad beginning makes a bad ending. (*Makes* expresses the asserting idea and also an action.)

The gifts of a bad man bring no good with them.

Prosperity makes friends, adversity tries them.

Guilty consciences make people cowards.

Temperance and labor are the two best physicians.

Spices and jewels
 From valley and sea,
 Armies and banners,
 Are buried in thee.

[The fact that every thought must have an asserting idea in it, and that every sentence must have a word that expresses this asserting idea, can very properly be introduced here, although it will be considered more fully in the next chapter. The pupils should study only declarative sentences in which the verbs are clearly *asserting* words. The stress should be laid, however, upon the connecting function of the verb-idea in asserting the predicate-attribute of the subject.]

66. The Preposition. Where is this pencil? (On the book.) Where is it now? (Under the book.) Now? (Behind the book.) Now? (Beside the book.)

What word denotes your idea of the relation of the pencil to the book in the first case? In the second, etc.?

When we think that *the book is on the table* the idea denoted by *on* connects our idea of the book to the idea of the table in such a way as to show the place of the book in relation to the table. A different relation is expressed by *over* than by *under* or *beside*. These all express relations of place.

Sometimes the relations are those of time; as, *The bear sleeps during the winter*. The time of the sleeping is the winter season.

Sometimes the relation is that of material; as, *A ring of gold was found among the ruins*.

There are other relations between ideas of which we shall learn later; such as manner, possession, and the like.

Ideas of these relations of time, place, material, manner, and others are called **preposition-ideas**.

Fill in the preposition-ideas in the following thoughts and state the relation expressed.

A bird — the hand is worth two — the bush.

They glide — phantoms — the wide hall

He dove — the sea and ascended — the water —
 a dry cave — the rocks.

Make thoughts that have preposition-ideas in them.

[We repeat here the suggestion made on a preceding page that a lively interest can be awakened by having the pupils state facts in science, or in history, or give quotations from literature, omitting from the statement some element of the sentence which the class shall supply. It thus becomes a test of knowledge beyond that of the particular word called for.]

67. A *word* used as the sign of a preposition-idea is called a **preposition**.

The preposition-idea always relates an object-idea to some other idea upon which it depends in the thought. An examination of prepositions in sentences will show that a preposition always connects some object-word (noun or pronoun) to some other word whose meaning the object word modifies. The words connected never hold the same rank in the sentence.

68. Point out the prepositions in the following sentences and tell what words they connect :

The pupil was absent without leave.

The dish ran away with the spoon.

Europe is beyond the ocean.

And in the cottage churchyard, I
Dwell near them with my mother.

The spirit of your fathers
Shall start from every wave.

The flame that lit the battle's wreck
Shone round him o'er the dead.

69. The Conjunction. Supply the idea in the following that will connect the thoughts into one larger thought:

The rain descended — the floods came.

The weather was cold — no one suffered severely.

Send for me — you want me.

It is true — my father was here.

When we think, *The evening comes and the dew begins to fall*, the connecting idea *and* joins the two thoughts into one larger thought. (Thoughts like ideas may be connected by conjunctive-ideas.) The use which distinguishes the conjunction-idea from the preposition-idea is that the latter connects ideas only, while the former may connect thoughts as well as ideas. Other differences will appear further on in our study.

Fill out the following thoughts with appropriate conjunction-ideas :

Blessed are the merciful — they shall obtain mercy.
Love not sloth — thou come to poverty.
He ran to the station — he missed the train.
Troy was taken — brave men defended it.

Little Bo-Peep fell fast asleep
— dreamed she heard them bleating.

[Let the pupils give similar tests to one another.]

70. A word that expresses a conjunction-idea is called a **conjunction**.

71. Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences and tell what they connect :

Pierre is French and Karl is German.
Annie is clever but her brother is a genius.
The father retired for he was tired.
My friend came though the storm raged fiercely.

I do not know how old you are,
Or whether you can speak,
But you may twinkle all night long,
And play at hide and seek.

72. SYNOPSIS FOR REVIEW.

Ideas.

Object-ideas.

Attribute-ideas { Qualities.
Actions.Connecting-ideas { Copula-ideas.
Conjunction-ideas.
Preposition-ideas.*Words.*Object-words { Nouns.
Pronouns.Attributive-words { Adjectives.
Adverbs.Connecting-words { Verbs.
Conjunctions.
Prepositions.

[Let the pupils make definitions of these different kinds of ideas and different classes of words. They should construct them from what they have acquired in the previous study and not seek them ready made from books. These definitions will be tentative, of course, but it is an excellent discipline for the learners to form definitions of things as they appear at different stages of their advancement in the knowledge of a subject.]

TEST QUESTIONS.

73. What different kinds of ideas do we use in thinking?
How many distinct classes of words do these ideas call for?

State likenesses and differences between the noun and the pronoun.

In what are adjectives and adverbs alike?

In what do they differ?

What two kinds of attributes may adjectives denote?

Give an example of an adjective that expresses quality; one that expresses action.

Give an example of an adverb that denotes the quality of another attribute.

What is the special and distinctive office of a copula or verb? (To affirm that the predicate-attribute belongs to the subject.)

CHAPTER IV.

THOUGHTS AND THEIR EXPRESSION.

74. You learned on page 18 that thoughts are composed of ideas, and how these ideas are connected so as to form thoughts or judgments.

Form a judgment about the stove. (The stove is hot.) What is the object-idea in this judgment? the attribute-idea? the asserting or connecting idea?

Form a thought about the blackboard. (The blackboard is useful.) What is the attribute-idea? What kind of an attribute? What is the asserting-idea? What is the object-idea?

Think, *The night is coming.* Name all the ideas.

Think, *A storm is gathering.* What is that about which something is thought? What is thought of the subject?

You note that in each of the preceding thoughts there is an object-idea, and an attribute-idea, and an idea that asserts or affirms the attribute of the subject. Each of these thoughts is formed by affirming an attribute-idea of an object-idea. The asserting idea connects the attribute-idea with the object-idea.

Unite the following ideas so as to form a thought: *month, roses, the, is, of, June.*

Supply the asserting ideas that are wanting in the following thoughts:

The minstrel — infirm and old.

Four large, rosy peaches — lying on the plate.

Texas — a very large state.

White and red roses — scattered before the queen's chariot.

The wind — blowing furiously.

[Let the pupils practice similar exercises prepared by the teacher and by themselves until they become familiar with the fact that every thought has the three constituent ideas of *object-idea*, *attribute-idea*, and *asserting or linking idea*.]

75. A thought or judgment is formed when we think something about an object.

(In all the lessons in this book care must be taken not to confuse the *words* with the *ideas* and *thoughts* of which the *words* are merely signs.)

EXERCISES.

76. Point out the three essential ideas in each of the following thoughts:

The bird is singing.

The dew was falling.

The dog was carrying a basket.

(*The dog* is the thought-subject; *was* is the asserting element; *carrying a basket* is the attribute of action asserted of the subject.)

The workmen are building a wall.

The boy was studying his lessons.

The girl was expecting her aunt.

The river is very large.

The family was well.

Annie is going.

77. You learned in Section 34 that the subject of thought is an object idea about which something is affirmed.

In Section 36 you learned that the predicate of thought is that which is affirmed of the subject.

You have now discovered that this predicate has two ideas in it:

1. The *affirming* or *stating idea*.

2. The *attribute* that is affirmed of the subject.

The asserting idea of the thought is called the **copula**.

The attribute-idea that is affirmed or stated is called the **predicate attribute**. It is called *predicate* because it is affirmed of the subject. It is called *attribute* because it is a quality, or action, or some other characteristic of the subject.

78. The Thought-Subject. In the thought, *The storm wind howled in rage*, the object-idea *wind* and the attribute-idea *storm* are together the subject of the thought. It was not the *gentle wind*, nor the *morning wind* that howled, but the *storm wind*.

All the ideas that, taken together, make that about which something is predicated, are the *thought-subject*.

79. Point out the entire thought-subject in the following thoughts. Point out the object-ideas and the modifying ideas:

The pitch of the musical note depends upon the rapidity of the vibration.

All forms of the lever are found in the human body.

The hero of the Book of Job came from a strange land.

The potent rod of Aurora's son waved round the coast.

Each horseman drew his battle blade.

The good south wind still blew behind.

80. The Thought-Predicate. All that is affirmed of the subject, together with the asserting-idea, forms the **thought-predicate**.

Point out the entire thought-predicate in each of the foregoing judgments.

81. The *predicate-attribute* may consist of one or more attribute ideas.

In the judgment, *Barbara Frietchie's work is o'er*, the idea *over* is the attribute affirmed of her work. It is the state or condition of it. Here the predicate-attribute consists of a single idea.

In the thought, *The rebel is riding on his raid*, the entire predicate-attribute is composed of the attribute of action, *riding*, and the modifying ideas, *on his raid*.

Point out the entire predicate-attribute in each of these judgments.

Point out the principal idea in each predicate-attribute, and its modifying ideas.

Point out the words that express the asserting-idea.

Point out the entire thought-predicate, including the asserting-idea and the predicate-attribute.

GENERAL STATEMENTS.

82. 1. The *thought-subject* is that about which something is asserted.

2. The *thought-predicate* is that which is thought of the subject.

3. The subject is composed of—

(1) The object-idea and

(2) All of its modifying ideas.

4. The predicate is composed of—

(1) The asserting-idea and

(2) All the ideas that are asserted of the subject, called the *predicate-attribute*.

5. The predicate-attribute is composed—

(1) An attribute-idea and

(2) All of its modifiers.

83 SYNOPSIS.

Thought	{	Subject	{	Object-idea.	{	Principal attribute-idea.
				Attribute-ideas.		
	{	Predicate	{	Asserting-idea	{	Its modifiers.
				Predicate-attribute		

ANALYSIS.

84. Classify the ideas in the following thoughts:

Angry clouds are rising rapidly.

(Example—1. *Angry clouds* are the ideas that form the thought-subject. 2. *Are rising rapidly* are the ideas that form the thought-predicate. 3. The unmodified object-idea in the subject is *clouds*. 4. The attribute-idea belonging to the subject is *angry*. 5. The asserting-idea in the predicate is *are*. 6. The predicate-attribute is *rising rapidly*. 7. *Rapidly* is the modifying idea of the attribute *rising*.)

Winter days are freezing cold.

Autumn days are sad.

Beautiful spring is coming rapidly.

Large birds are flying leisurely.

Some men are hopelessly stupid.

June days are extremely fine.

[This exercise should be continued until the pupils can readily classify the ideas in thoughts like the above. Use only such thoughts as permit the ideas to be expressed, each in a separate word. Avoid confounding the ideas with the words which are their signs. It is the relation of ideas and their attributes, and not of words, that is here considered. Printed and written sentences should be avoided as much as possible except when the *expression* of the thought is the subject of study. In the study of how thoughts are composed by uniting ideas, oral language is much less confusing than written. The spoken word seems more like the idea, to most people, than does the written word. Work slowly through these first chapters. If Part I. is well mastered, the remainder of the book can be finished in a short time.]

COMPOSITION.

85. Make thoughts, using the following subjects, and distinguish the subject from the predicate.

Barbara Frietchie; Mother Hubbard; Dr. Johnson; King Arthur; Australia; Abraham.

When the thought is not too complex for the pupils' present knowledge, let the ideas be analyzed as above.

Select six subjects from objects in the school-room.

Select six from objects in the vicinity.

Select six from Geography.

Select six from literature; as, Robinson Crusoe, Hiawatha, etc.

HOW THOUGHTS ARE EXPRESSED.

86. Thoughts and ideas would be of little value unless we could express them to one another. There are several ways of expressing our thoughts. We can tell what we think and feel:

1. By different bodily movements, called gestures.
2. By different expressions of the face.
3. By maps and pictures.
4. By words, both spoken and written.
5. By exclamations.
6. By playing upon a musical instrument.
7. By singing, etc.

[Let the pupils practice these different ways of expressing their thoughts. The teacher asks questions, suggests pleasant and unpleasant ideas, and asks pupils to respond by motions, or by facial expressions. Let them make pictures and maps of their homes or of the school-house or school-room, and compare the clearness of the description by pictures with a description by words. The purpose is to make clear the distinction between our thoughts and the different signs we use to make these thoughts known to others. Encourage the pupils to talk in pantomime and others to interpret in words. Let one child describe in words how a person looks, or walks, or talks, and another by imitation. Which signs express the thoughts most clearly?]

THE SENTENCE.

87. In how many different ways can you express your thoughts?

Express your thought of the weather in words. (The weather is pleasant.) When we use words to express our thoughts we form sentences.

A sentence is a word or group of words that expresses a thought.

How do sentences differ from thoughts?

How does a sentence resemble a thought?

Make a thought about the Philippine Islands.

Express this thought in words.

What **ideas taken together** make the thought-subject?

What **words taken together** make the sentence-subject?

How does the thought-predicate differ from the sentence-predicate?

KINDS OF THOUGHTS AND OF SENTENCES.

88. The Different Kinds of Thoughts. Declare something about the pencil. (The pencil is soft.) Here we simply affirm an attribute of the subject. The judgment is **declarative**.

89. Ask some question about the pencil. (Where is the pencil?) Here the predicate-attribute of the thought is unknown and asked for; as, *The pencil is —?* You can supply the missing element in the thought and think that *the pencil is on the table*.

The inquiry is called an **interrogative thought**.

When the missing element is supplied a **declarative judgment** is formed.

Make a thought which asks for the subject; for an attribute of an object; for an adverbial attribute. (How is the bird singing?) Answer with a declarative judgment. (The bird is singing —.)

90. Command a dog to leave the room. (Go out!)

When a thought is a command it is an **imperative judgment**. The thought may be one of entreaty; as, *Pardon me for my fault*. This also calls for the imperative form of the judgment.

91. Make a thought that is accompanied with strong emotion. *How like a fawning publican he looks! I hate him, for he is a Christian!*

Such a thought is an **exclamatory judgment**.

[Send the pupils to the dictionary to justify these names for the four different kinds of thoughts. Enough practice should be given in forming these different kinds of judgments to make the pupils familiar with their differences. Lead them to see that it is the thought in the mind that determines the kind of sentence to be employed.]

KINDS OF SENTENCES NEEDED.

92. A sentence that asserts the predicate of the subject is a **declarative sentence**; as, *The buttercup catches the sun. Our slender life runs rippling by.* (It gives information.)

93. A sentence used in asking a question is an **interrogative sentence**. (It seeks information.) As, *Who are the wise?* (Subject asked for.) *Is thy work done?* (Copula asked for.) *How did she receive you?* (Predicate-modifier asked for.)

94. A sentence used in expressing a command or entreaty is an **imperative sentence**. It appeals to the will; as, *Dare to be true. Give us this day our daily bread.*

95. A sentence used to express a thought and also some strong emotion is an **exclamatory sentence**; as, *How wonderful is man! Oh that those lips had language!*

EXERCISE.

96. To what class does each of the following sentences belong?

A little child shall lead them.

The dew was falling fast.

Who taught the bee with winds and rains to strive?

What is it to be wise?

Who makes it snow?

Lend me your ears.

Dare to be true.

Be not overcome of evil.

Give us this day our daily bread.

Oh that those lips had language!

How swiftly pass a thousand years!

Oh that I had wings like a dove!

COMPOSITION.

97. Form six *declarative* thoughts and express them in sentences.

Form six *interrogative* thoughts and express them in sentences.

Form six *imperative* thoughts and express them in sentences.

Form six *exclamatory* thoughts and express them in sentences.

CHAPTER V.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

98. In Chapter II. you learned that there are three distinct classes of ideas used in thinking. These are :

1. Object-ideas,
2. Attribute-ideas,
3. Connecting-ideas.

You also learned that there are two classes of attribute-ideas, viz. :

1. Attributes of objects,
2. Attributes of other attributes.

You also discovered three classes of connecting ideas, viz. :

1. Connecting ideas that join other *ideas* together,
2. Connecting ideas that unite *thoughts*,
3. A peculiar connecting idea that *asserts* something of an object.

All of these ideas are expressed in language by *words*.

We need as many distinct classes of words as there are distinct classes of ideas to be expressed. These classes of ideas we discovered in Chapter II. are :

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Object-words | { Nouns, |
| | { Pronouns ; |
| 2. Attribute-words | { Adjectives, |
| | { Adverbs ; |
| 3. Connecting-words | { Prepositions, |
| | { Conjunctions, |
| | { Copula. |

99. The classes of words used to express the different classes of ideas we use in thinking are called **parts of speech**.

[It should be carefully noted and borne in mind that the descriptions that have been given of these parts of speech in the preceding pages have not been complete definitions. You have simply learned what is the distinguishing mark of each, by which it is set off from the others in a class by itself. For example: That which makes a conjunction different from a preposition is that it may express the connection of *thoughts*, while prepositions can only express the connection between *ideas*. A good deal of practice should be given at this point, and during the study of this chapter, in pointing out that particular function of a word which determines whether it shall be classed as *noun* or *pronoun*, or as *verb* or *adjective*, or as *adjective* or *adverb*, etc.]

If the *distinguishing marks* of each part of speech shall be carefully noted at this stage of the study, the double or triple uses of some words will then be seen more clearly when they occur in the sentence.]

100. We will now note some additional peculiarities of the parts of speech we have studied, and learn also whether there are yet other parts of speech in the language.

THE NOUN.

101. A noun must be a *name* of some object-idea.

We shall find later that it may be a particular name given to only one object, as, *Mary*, or a general name applicable to each one of a class, as, *girl*; but it is always a *name*. No other part of speech is a name.

Note, too, that it is the name of some object-idea (or object). By this is meant that it is the name of an idea that is the subject of a thought, or that may be so used.

You will see later that other words may perform the office of nouns in a sentence, but they are not nouns if they are not *names* of the objects they denote.

102. Another Kind of Object-ideas. Not all object-ideas have sense-objects to correspond to them. In the sentence,

Temperance is a virtue, two attribute-ideas that are also object-ideas are expressed. Either *temperance* or *virtue* can have something predicated of it. They are *attributes* that are *thought apart* from the objects to whom they belong, and considered as object-ideas. The names of these attributes when used as object-ideas are *temperance* and *virtue*. When used simply as attributes the words used are *temperate* and *virtuous*.

When we speak of a *virtuous man*, the quality *virtuous* is used as an attribute belonging to *man*. But when we say, *Virtue is its own reward*, the quality is viewed as an object-idea, and the name *virtue* is given to it. The attribute-idea is abstracted (separated) from its object and is itself used as an object-idea. Note that the *noun*, *virtue*, is a different word from the *adjective*, *virtuous*.

The names of such object-ideas are called **abstract nouns**.

103. Point out the abstract nouns in the following:

Vice is a monster.

Beauty is entrancing.

Smoothness belongs to velvet.

Sugar has a sweetness different from honey.

Deep breathing is a healthful action.

What are the abstract nouns corresponding to the following adjectives: Hard; soft; credulous; timid; free; equal; feeble.

[Give many illustrations of the difference between object-ideas of this class and of those that are the images of sense-objects. The pupils will soon discover that most of the nouns used in language are the names of object-ideas that were originally attribute-ideas,—abstract nouns.]

104. Make a definition of a *noun* to include all you have yet learned about it.

THE PRONOUN.

105. Both nouns and pronouns are signs of object-ideas.

In the sentence, *The boy who studies will learn*, the word *boy* is the *name* of the subject about which we think, and *who* denotes the same person. *Boy* and *who* are signs of the same object-idea. But *who* is not a name. The word *boy* is a name common to a large class of objects, but there is no class of objects having the name *who*.

In the sentence, *The mother loves her child*, there are two object-ideas: the word *mother* names one of them and the word *child* the other. What word denotes one of these object-ideas without naming it? Which object-idea does it denote?

In the sentence, *Me thou didst make a priest*, which word is the name? What are object-words but not names? What object does each denote?

106. Make a definition of a *pronoun* that will distinguish it from the noun.

(From what you have learned the definition should declare that the pronoun is a *word*, that it is the *sign* of an *object-idea*, and that it is *not* a name.)

By this definition any word that denotes an object, but is not its name, is a *pronoun*.

Point out the pronouns in the following :

Each spake to each.

When Moses heard that, he was content.

All were there.

All that breathe shall share thy destiny.

Some are born great ;

Others achieve greatness.

107. There are several classes of pronouns, some of which have double uses. But they are all alike in that each

expresses an object-idea without naming it. You will learn how they differ in Part II.

[Let the pupils have much practice in distinguishing between object-words that are names and those that are not names.]

THE ADJECTIVE.

108. You have learned that object-ideas may have attributes of quality or of action. The words that are signs of these attributes are called **adjectives**.

109. Other Attributes of Objects. In the sentence, *This book is interesting*, the word *this* shows what particular book is meant. It confines the meaning of the word *book* to a certain object pointed out. It merely limits the application of the word *book*. Some adjective-words limit the meaning of nouns by expressing quality; as, *red* apple—the meaning is limited to apples that are red; some, by expressing action; as, the *bellowing* thunder; and some merely set off or distinguish object-ideas without expressing either quality or action; as, *This* pencil is soft. Attribute-words that merely restrict the meaning of nouns without expressing any other attribute are called **limiting adjectives**.

When we say, *An apple is larger than a cherry*, the size of the two is compared. The apple is large only in relation to the cherry. When compared with a pumpkin it is small. An attribute of relation refers to two or more objects.

Such adjectives express *attributes of relation*.

A word which expresses an attribute-idea that belongs to an object is an adjective-word.

An adjective-word may denote:

1. Quality of an object,—a *beautiful* garden.
2. Action of an object,—the rapidly *flowing* stream.
3. Limitation of the application of the noun; as, *This* climate is healthful.
4. Relation of one object to another,—John is *taller* than James.

THE ADVERB.

110. We learned on pages 28 and 29 that an adverb is a word that expresses some attribute of another attribute.

In the sentence, *The gently falling rain of spring quickly awakens the slumbering flowers*, what attribute is expressed of *falling*? Of *awakening*? We discover that it is a *gentle* falling and a *quick* awakening. These adverbs *gently* and *quickly* describe the other attributes to which they belong, by denoting their quality.

111. Not all adverbs express *quality* of other attributes. In the sentence, *He was abundantly able to fill the office*, the adverb *abundantly* expresses the quantity of his ability. So, too, in *My friend comes often to see me*, the adverb *often* expresses the frequency of the *coming*. There are many classes of adverbs, but all of them are alike in expressing attributes of other attributes. Adverbs modify the meaning of attribute-words. They never modify the meaning of object-words.

112. Make a definition of *the adverb* that shall include what you have learned about it, being careful to distinguish it from an adjective.

THE VERB.

113. You have learned that in forming a judgment you connect the attribute-idea with the subject by the copula, or asserting idea. (See page 31.)

This asserting idea is expressed in language by the *verb*. No thought is complete unless this asserting or linking idea is in it, and no sentence is complete that does not contain a word or words that express this asserting idea.

Why have all English-speaking people united in calling this word the *verb*? (See dictionary.)

It is essential to the verb that it express this asserting or linking idea. What other idea may it express?

In the sentence, *The sun shines*, what is the asserting word? What does *shines* declare belongs to the sun? (The attribute *shining*.)

In the sentence, *The sun is shining*, two words are used to express the predicate. The asserting idea is expressed by *is*, and the attribute of action by *shining*.

When we say, *The sun shines*, the word *shines* has a double use. It is used to express the asserting idea, and it is also used to express the attribute of action (*shining*) that belongs to the sun.

114. Since *shines* asserts something of the subject, it is a *verb*. Since it also expresses the attribute *shining* of the sun, it is an **attributive verb**.

115. In the sentence, *The sun is shining*, the word *is* has only one use, which is the essential office of the verb. It is called a **pure verb**, because its only office is to assert.

116. What two kinds of verbs have we discovered?
Make a definition of each class.

THE PREPOSITION.

117. You have learned that a preposition connects *words* and expresses the relation of an *object-idea* to some other *idea*.

In the sentence, *The man in the moon is a myth*, the preposition *in* expresses a relation of *the moon* to *the man* so as to modify the idea *man*. What man is meant? The man *in the moon*.

118. The preposition generally indicates the modification of the meaning of some word in the sentence by a noun or pronoun. This is its peculiar office.

When we say, *He rode through the city, past the church, and by the lake*, what words are prepositions? Note that riding through the *city* is different from riding past the

church, or by the *lake*. Each noun, *city*, *church*, and *lake*, modifies the meaning of *rode*.

119. Make a definition of the preposition that includes what has been discovered so far.

[The special work of each part of speech by which it differs from all others, as has been stated before, should be made as clear as possible. We shall find that one word may do the work of another, but each part of speech in a sentence has something distinctive and peculiar to itself, which we may call its mark. One important purpose of grammar study is to discover the exact value of words in expressing thought.]

THE CONJUNCTION.

120. You have learned that the conjunction may show the union of *ideas*, but that neither of the ideas so connected is a modifier of the other. They both hold the same rank in the thought.

How do conjunctions differ from prepositions?

How do they differ from the copula? (See page 00.)

What do the conjunctions connect in the following:

The sun and the moon and the stars are in the heavens.

Six and four are ten.

God is truth and goodness and beauty.

A soldier or a sailor was in town.

Note whether the words connected by conjunctions have the same rank in the sentence.

You have learned also that a mark of a conjunctive-idea is that it unites two or more thoughts into one larger thought. (See page 00.)

To show the connection of thoughts there must be a connection of sentences that express them into one larger sentence. The words that thus connect sentences are called what?

It is the distinguishing mark of a conjunction that it connects sentences. It will be seen later that when it connects ideas these ideas represent different sentences.

EXERCISE.

121. Name the part of speech of each word in the following sentences (justify your classification before stating it):

Example—"Virtue is its own reward."

Virtue is the name of an object-idea of which something is predicated,—Noun.

is expresses the idea that asserts the predicate of the subject,—Verb.

its denotes an object without naming it,—Pronoun.

own describes the reward,—Adjective.

reward names an object of which something might be predicated,—Noun.

The man brought two baskets of big red apples.

A fine mist fell steadily.

From the turrets round,

Loud hoots the startled owl.

He has hard work getting through the straw and hay
and twisted ropes.

Their little bodies were warm and their hearts were
merry.

The minstrel was infirm and old.

Ulysses spread his canvas joyfully, and sailed away.

Birds of passage sailed through the leaden air from
the icebound, desolate northern bays to the shores
of tropical islands.

Firmly built with rafters of oak, the house of the
farmer stood on the side of a hill commanding
the sea.

The firelight was gleaming on the windows.

Four large rosy peaches were lying on a white plate.

The people of tropical regions are usually indolent

Texas is a very large state.

White and red roses were scattered before the queen's
chariot.

The task is done.

A thought, or judgment, is composed of ideas.

The bell rang, but the children did not hear it.

THE INTERJECTION.

122. The interjection is the sign of a *feeling*, but not of an *idea*. It is not an element of the sentence, therefore, and does not properly belong to the parts of speech, for these are all signs of ideas.

Different feelings are expressed by different exclamations.

What feelings are expressed in the following:

Alas! pshaw! hey-day! hist! zounds! hail! bravo!

123. The interjection is the sign of some strong feeling, but is not an element of the sentence.

[The pupils should distinguish clearly at this point between an interjection and an exclamatory sentence. There are many exclamatory sentences, like Hark! Look! Behold! and the like, which are often called interjections, when they express thoughts as well as feelings, and are, therefore, exclamatory sentences.]

WORDS SOMETIMES CALLED PARTS OF SPEECH.

124. You have discovered that the mind is furnished with five kinds of ideas. Name each kind. How many classes of words are there to express these five classes of ideas?

What are these classes of words called?

How many parts of speech have you discovered so far?

125. The Participle. Ideas of action can be expressed by adjectives and attributive verbs; as,

1. The roaring lion,—adjective.

2. The lion roars,—attributive verb.

In the sentence, *I heard the lion roaring*, the word *roaring* denotes an attribute of the lion, and it also implies an

assertion which it does not express. Because of this double meaning, *roaring* is called a **participle**.

Justify the name from the dictionary.

In the sentence, *The farmer caught the boy stealing apples*, the participle *stealing* is like an attributive verb in another respect. The action is limited by the object *apples*.

These resemblances to the adjective and to the attributive verb may justify calling such words *participles*, but you will note that there is no new class of ideas discovered. The participle expresses an adjective-idea in part, and in part a verb-idea.

It is like the attributive verb in that it sometimes denotes a completed action, and sometimes the action is incomplete; as, *The bird flitting from tree to tree* (incomplete action); *The traitor shunned by all* (complete action).

Since no new kind of idea is expressed by it, but only a combination of other ideas, it is not properly a separate *part of speech*. The name participle is given to this combination of meanings.

126. We may describe the participle as a word that performs some of the offices of both an adjective and an attributive verb.

In the sentence, *The working man is the citizen deserving honor*, the adjective idea predominates in the word *working*, but *deserving* has also one use of an attributive verb.

In the sentence, *Beware of the man working for bad ends*, the attributive-verb idea is more prominent in the participle *working*.

127. Point out the participles in the following, and tell what ideas are expressed by each:

A man wearing a black hat passed by.

I saw a boy beating his donkey.

The master caught his servant stealing hay.

The children coming home from school

Look in at the open door.

He hears his daughter's voice
Singing in the village choir.

Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing,
Onward through life he goes.

128. The Article. *A* or *an* was originally a numeral adjective meaning one. It still retains that meaning, but has another use besides. In the sentence, *Man is mortal*, the word *mortal* expresses an attribute of the human race. In the sentence, *Man is a mortal*, the word *mortal* names a class of objects of which *man* is one.

So in *John is man*, the word *man* denotes the attribute *human* as distinct from other beings. But in *John is a man*, the meaning is changed to that of a class noun.

129. This power of changing a word from an adjective meaning to a noun meaning is peculiar to the word *a* or *an*, and it is often called a separate part of speech for this reason. But it is essentially a limiting adjective denoting unity. It is called the **indefinite article** by many grammarians.

130. The word *the* points out a particular individual or a particular group of individuals; as in the sentence, *The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea*. It is called the **definite article**. But the idea expressed is an adjective-idea.

There is little need of considering the articles as separate parts of speech. They are merely a class of adjectives.

Define the indefinite article.

Define the definite article.

131. The Infinitive. The sentence, *To steal is base*, shows that the act of stealing is the subject of thought, and that the quality *base* is predicated of it. The subject of this sentence is *to steal*, and is called an **infinitive**. It has the meaning and use of a noun. It expresses an action which is viewed as a thought-subject. Every thought-subject must be expressed by either a noun or a word or group of words

used as a noun. The infinitive may be called a *noun-phrase*, since it is composed of two words.

A peculiarity of the infinitive is, that although it fills the office of a noun in the sentence, it may also be modified like an attributive verb. It is another of those sentence elements that can have a double use.

The nature and use of the infinitive will be more fully presented in Part II. It is a form of the verb that is used for several other parts of speech.

The infinitive does not express any ideas that are not expressed by the other classes of words you have studied, and need not be regarded as a new part of speech.

Make a definition of the infinitive.

132. The Gerund. In the sentence, *Keeping wealth is more difficult than acquiring it*, the words *keeping* and *acquiring* have the uses of nouns like those of the infinitive. In fact, they are merely other forms of the infinitive. They fill the office of a noun, and also do some of the work of an attributive verb in expressing the thought. The participle has the use of an adjective, and in this it differs from the gerund.

The gerunds take the participle forms of the verb instead of the infinitive forms, but they perform the same office as the infinitive.

The gerunds are often called verbal nouns. Justify this name.

The gerund does not denote any new class of ideas, and is not, therefore, a new part of speech. It performs some of the offices of a noun, and some of those of an attributive verb.

133. Point out the infinitives and gerunds in the following (and state the use of each as a *noun*; as an *attributive verb*):

To spare thee now is past my power.

I like to hear from you.

He felt the pangs of dying.

Seeking safety in flight was a mistake.

Supplying wants is the end of studying science.

The casting out devils, the raising the dead, the healing the sick, were divine acts.

To do good is to live nobly.

(Continue these exercises until the class sees clearly the distinguishing marks of each of these classes of words. The brighter pupils will insist upon classing pronouns with them. They will be right in so far as the nature of the idea expressed is concerned. But the function of *naming* is an important one, which sets the noun off distinctly from the pronoun.)

TEST QUESTIONS.

134. What is a Part of Speech?

What distinct classes of ideas are found in the mind?

What parts of speech are used to express them?

How does a pronoun differ from a noun? How are they alike?

What is the distinguishing mark of the verb?

How does an attributive verb differ from a pure verb?

In what is an attributive verb like an adjective?

What ideas can have attributes?

How does an adjective differ from an adverb? How are they alike?

So far as you have yet learned, do adverbs modify pure verbs?

(Do pure verbs express attributes of other ideas?)

What are the distinguishing marks of the preposition?

What distinguishes the conjunction from the preposition?

When prepositions connect words, what is true of their relative rank in the sentence?

What is true when conjunctions connect words?

Does an attributive verb express an attribute of quality of the subject?

What classes of adjective-words have we discovered?

How does an interjection differ from an exclamatory imperative sentence? In what are they alike?

What two kinds of ideas may be expressed by the participle?

Why is not the participle a distinct part of speech?

Does the pronoun express a class of ideas different from the noun?

Is it any more a distinct part of speech than the participle or the adjective? Why?

The indefinite article denotes *one*; what other office has it?

What kind of nouns are infinitives and gerunds?

Show that they may be considered abstract nouns.

In what do infinitives and gerunds differ?

[The infinitive, participle, gerund, and articles, sometimes called parts of speech, enable us to express our thoughts more concisely, clearly, and attractively than could be done without them.]

CHAPTER VI.

PHRASES AND CLAUSES.

WHAT PHRASES ARE.

135. In the sentence, He cried *loudly*, what part of speech is loudly? What is its use in expressing the thought?

In the sentence, He cried *with a loud voice*, what group of words fills the office of *loudly* in the preceding sentence?

We see from these examples that a group of words may perform the office of a single word, or part of speech, in expressing a judgment.

Point out each group of words used as an adjective or an adverbial modifier in the following:

The door on our right hand is open.

He ran with wonderful rapidity.

What words express the entire subject-idea in *The evening star has lighted her crystal lamp*? What group expresses the entire predicate-idea? What are the modifying groups in the subject? In the predicate?

When I think of the book *on the table* and of the pencil *in my hand*, the group of ideas, *on the table*, forms an attribute of the book, and *in my hand*, an attribute of the pencil. Each of these groups of words forms a single element of the sentence, and does the work of a single part of speech in expressing the thought. In the sentence, "A ship *gliding over the water* is a beautiful object," the phrase *gliding over the water* does the work of an adjective in expressing the subject of the thought. So, too, *over the water* performs the office of an *adverb* in modifying the meaning of *gliding*.

Note that none of the modifying groups we have mentioned contains a subject and a predicate.

In the following judgment, *Learning a language well is difficult*, what is it that is difficult?

136. A group of words that fills the office of a part of speech, but does not contain a subject and a predicate, is a **phrase**.

(The chief object, at this point, is to have the pupils distinguish readily between a *phrase* when used as a part of speech and a *simple word*. The teacher will note that the phrase, *gliding over the water*, in the given sentence, is used as an adjective, and that *gliding* has a phrase-modifier, *over the water*, which has the use of an adverb. The many different groupings of words that can be made to make phrases may cause some confusion in the mind of the pupil until he learns to determine what part of speech each grouping represents.)

EXERCISE.

137. Point out the phrases in the following sentences, and tell for what part of speech each one is used.

Example—"At the bottom of the garden ran a little rivulet." *At the bottom of the garden* is a phrase, used as an adverb, to make the meaning of *ran* more definite; *of the garden* is a phrase used as an adjective, to modify the meaning of *bottom*; *a little rivulet* is a phrase used as a noun, subject of the sentence. Note that it takes all the words, *a little rivulet*, to express the subject-idea.

The author of the poem was a mere child.

The hour of departure was at hand.

The town is built on the banks of a stream in the midst of a fine farming region.

Gables projecting over the basement below shaded the doorway.

The boat was hurled violently against the cliff.

The herd ran violently down a steep place into the sea.

June is the month of roses.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.

Cyrus learned to shoot with a bow, to ride a horse, and to speak the truth.

The minister lives beyond the church.

[Lead the children to use sentences containing phrases, and name the parts of speech for which each is used. Encourage them to test each other by giving skeleton quotations to be filled with phrases.]

138. CLASSES OF PHRASES.

a. Point out in the above sentences all of the *adjective-phrases*.

b. What is an adjective-phrase? (A phrase that does the work of an adjective in the sentence.)

c. Point out all of the *noun-phrases* in the above sentences.

d. What is a noun-phrase? (Pupils make definition.)

e. Designate all of the *adverbial-phrases* in the above sentences.

f. Define an adverbial-phrase.

139. Construct definitions that shall contain all that you have learned of the nature of phrases.

WHAT A VERB-PHRASE IS

140. In the sentence, "The boat may have arrived this morning," *may have arrived* asserts the predicate (the arriving this morning) of the subject so as to make a sentence. In this sentence, therefore, *may have arrived* is used as a verb, and is called a *verb-phrase*. The assertion and the *predicate-attribute* (arriving) are both expressed by the verb-phrase *may have arrived*. In the sentence, "The storm was

raging," the words *was raging* are a verb-phrase, in which the *assertion* and the predicate-attributive are expressed by separate words. The phrase shows that the action is continuous. The two words together do the work of an attributive verb.

EXERCISE.

141. Point out all of the verb-phrases in the following sentences, and state whether the predicate-attribute is combined with the verb-phrase or not, and also whether continuous action is expressed.

Honesty has been the best policy.

Virtue has always brought its own reward.

America was discovered by Columbus.

Washington will live long in the memory of mankind.

Lincoln was wise and just. (Is there a verb-phrase in this?)

Grant was great in war and in peace. (Is there one here?)

The winds may blow and the storms may come.

COMPOSITION.

142. Make thoughts of the objects in the school-room that call for these four different kinds of phrases, and tell whether they are adjective-phrases, noun-phrases, adverbial-phrases, or verb-phrases.

[These composition exercises are excellent means of discovering whether the pupils have caught the idea that the thought they are expressing determines what words and phrases must go into the sentence.]

WHAT A CLAUSE IS.

143. We have seen that single words used to express ideas in a sentence are called *parts of speech*, and that a group of words *not containing* a subject and predicate, which performs the office of a part of speech, is called a *phrase*.

When a group of words *containing a subject and predicate* is used as a part of speech, it is called a **clause**. In the sentence, *That honesty is the best policy is generally admitted*, the clause, *That honesty is the best policy*, is used as a noun, and expresses the subject-idea in the thought.

[Give many exercises in which clauses are used as parts of speech.]

144. A clause is a group of words containing a subject and predicate, which performs the office of a part of speech in a sentence.

145. By a study of the following sentences, it will be seen that the clause may be used for three different parts of speech, viz.: the *noun*, the *adjective*, and the *adverb*.

EXERCISES.

Point out the clauses in the following, and name the part of speech for which each is used:

Examples—"That honesty is the best policy is believed by all who have made a careful study of the matter."

a. That honesty is the best policy is a clause used in place of a noun, as the subject of the sentence.

b. Who have made a careful study of the matter is a clause used in place of an adjective, to make the meaning of *all* more definite.

c. We shall be happy when school begins. When school begins is a clause used in place of an adverb, to express the time of the predicate.

Dikes that the hands of the farmers had raised with
labor incessant,
Shut out the turbulent tides.

Then he thought how the long streets were dotted
with lamps, and how the peaceful stars were shin-
ing overhead.

How shall we go? is the next question.

"The bridge is broken!" shouted the rider.

The spot where the battle occurred is marked by a fine monument.

The report is, that the fleet has been destroyed.

Notify me when you reach your destination.

The scouts reported that the hostile Indians were gathered on the Rio Grande.

When the tide went out, the sands were strewn with wreckage.

They pitched their tents where running water was found.

146. A clause used to make the meaning of an object-word more definite is an **adjective clause**.

147. A clause used to make the meaning of an attribute-word more definite is an **adverbial clause**.

A clause used to express an object-idea is a **noun clause**.

It should be remembered that attributive verbs are also attribute-words. In the sentence, *Birds fly*, the verb *fly* expresses the assertion and denotes the *attribute of action* of the birds (flying.)

In the sentence, *The birds fly with great rapidity*, the *phrase, with great rapidity*, makes the meaning of fly more explicit by denoting the quality of the action. (Attribute of another attribute.) It is an *adverbial phrase*.

In the sentence, *Birds return when the spring comes*, the *clause, when the spring comes*, shows the limitation of the returning of the birds to the coming of spring. (A limiting attribute. Page 00.) This is an *adverbial clause*.

[Sufficient practice should be given to make it easy for the pupils to distinguish between *parts of speech* and *phrases and clauses* used as parts of speech. A part of speech consists of a single word.

It is a little difficult for learners to see that a group of words can perform the office of a single part of speech in the sentence. A good deal of practice on *oral sentences* will be found better than to use only written and printed sentences. The modifying words, phrases, and clauses can be made to stand out clearer when addressed to the ear (with proper emphasis) than when presented to the eye. As soon as the pupils learn to discover a single object-idea or attribute-idea in a group of words, the principal difficulty in dealing with phrases and clauses is overcome.

The author assumes that the teacher will supplement the sentences for practice given in the text by many others. These should be simple and commonplace statements in which the sentence-form that the teacher wishes to impress is easily discovered. Many of the exercises given in these pages are selections from literature, and should be studied as such while treated as sentences for grammatical analysis. The learners should be made familiar with the grammatical facts involved in each before these selections from literature are taken up.]

148. COMPOSITION.

Make thoughts which require the use of clauses to express them, and state the use of each clause in the sentences.

149. ANALYSIS.

(1) Name all the parts of speech in the following sentences.

(2) Point out all the phrases and clauses, and name the part of speech for which each is used.

We may shut our eyes, but we cannot help knowing
That skies are clear and grass is growing;
The breeze comes whispering in our ear
That dandelions are blossoming near,
That maize has sprouted, that streams are flowing,
That the river is bluer than the sky,
That the robin is plastering his house near by.

My golden spurs now bring to me,
And bring to me my richest mail,
For to-morrow I go over land and sea
In search of the Holy Grail.

Slowly Sir Launfal's eyes grew dim ;
Slumber fell like a cloud on him,
And into his soul the vision flew.

The drawbridge dropped with a surly clang.

Down swept the chill wind from the mountain peak,
From the snow five thousand summers old.

Swift little troops of silent sparks,
Now pausing, now scattering away as in fear,
Go threading the soot-forest's tangled darks
Like herds of startled deer.

CHAPTER VII.

FORMS OF SENTENCES.

150. We found in the early part of our study of Grammar (see page —) that there are four kinds of sentences, because there are four distinct kinds of thoughts or judgments.

Name the four *kinds* of sentences and define each. (See page —.)

You will now learn that sentences may differ in their form as well as in their use.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

151. You have seen that some sentences do not use clauses as parts of speech, and that they express only a single thought. These are called *simple sentences*. There may be an indefinite number of parts of speech and of phrases in a simple sentence, but there can be in it only *one subject and one predicate*.

The *simple sentence* expresses a single judgment; as,

The sun is in the heavens.

The moon is in the heavens.

The stars are in the heavens.

Here are three judgments and three simple sentences to express them.

Since the same predicate belongs to each subject in these sentences, the subjects may all be combined thus, "The sun, moon, and stars are in the heavens." This is called a simple sentence having a compound subject. When the thought is

analyzed, it is found that it is an abridged form of a compound sentence.

Make thoughts having compound subjects about objects at your homes.

Make two or three sentences having the same subject but different predicates.

Make of these a thought that requires a sentence with a compound predicate to express it. Such sentences are simple in part and compound in part, but they are classed with the simple sentences, since only different subject and predicate ideas are united, and not different thoughts.

Sentences having both a compound subject and a compound predicate are also classed with simple sentences; as, *The sun and moon rise in the east and set in the west.* Express this thought by four simple sentences. Note that the words *sun and moon* denote the subject of the thought and *rise and set* the predicate.

THE VARIETIES OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

152. 1. The sentence having a single subject and a single predicate.

2. The sentence having a compound subject and a single predicate.

3. The sentence having a compound predicate and a single subject.

4. The sentence having a compound subject and a compound predicate.

Use each of these varieties in expressing thoughts of objects.

153. Classify the following simple sentences (as to varieties; as to their nature — declarative, interrogative, etc.):

On some fond breast the parting soul relies.

Edward sings and plays.

The brother and sister will visit you.

He went up and came down.
 Will you go or stay?
 The lion and the lamb shall lie down together.
 The man and the woman came in together and went out
 separately.
 Little Bo-Peep fell fast asleep.
 Each morning sees some task begun,
 Each evening sees it close.
 Something attempted, something done,
 Has earned a night's repose.
 Do truth and candor charm you?
 Will he not keep an account of this?
 Press on to the front.
 Make way for liberty.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

154. A sentence in which a clause is used as a part of speech is called **complex**; as, "The stone *which the builders rejected* has become the chief stone of the corner." Here the clause is used as an adjective.

Make other thoughts requiring complex sentences to express them.

155. A **complex sentence** expresses a thought by using one or more clauses as parts of speech; that is, it expresses a thought which has one or more *represented thoughts* among its elements. What is a represented thought will be discovered later.

[There seems to be little reason for calling such a sentence *complex*. Phrase modifiers often complicate the sentence more than clause modifiers. There is certainly no more complexity in the thought when clauses are employed. In the sentence, *We are on the verge, it cannot be questioned, of a long and terrible conflict*, there is a foreign element introduced (*it cannot be questioned*), to correspond

to the foreign element in the thought. The thought is complex, and the sentence that expresses it is therefore complex. But it has become established usage to consider a sentence with a clause modifier as complex, and it does not seem wise to attempt to change this nomenclature.]

A COMPOUND SENTENCE.

156. When two or more independent judgments are connected in the mind so as to make a larger whole of thought, we need a corresponding union of sentences to express them. We have learned that it is the office of conjunctions to connect such sentences. In the sentence, *I know that the night has come, and I believe that the day will dawn*, there are two independent judgments—one a judgment of what I know, and the other of what I believe. In each of these independent judgments a represented judgment is used as an element in the thought. Each clause is an element in its sentence and is used as a noun. But the entire expression denotes a larger whole of thought than does either sentence alone.

157. When two or more simple or complex sentences are connected by conjunctions, so as to express a larger whole of thought, a *compound sentence* is formed; as, “Life is real, life is earnest, and the grave is not its goal; ‘Dust thou art, to dust returnest,’ was not spoken of the soul.”

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

158. The following order for analyzing sentences is suggested:

(1) Kind of sentence. (Declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory.)

(2) Form. (Simple, complex, or compound. If simple, state the variety.)

(3) Entire subject.

(4) Entire predicate. { a. Copula or asserting element.
 b. Predicate-attribute.

(5) If copula and attribute are expressed in one word, state what the attribute is.

159. Point out the phrases and clauses in the following, and tell the part of speech for which each is used:

EXAMPLE: "A coal-cellar may be a most curious place to live in, but a Brownie is a curious creature."

This sentence positively asserts something of a thought subject—it is *declarative*;

It is the union of two sentences to express a larger thought—it is *compound*;

The entire subject of the first simple sentence is the words, *A coal-cellar*; the entire predicate is, *may be a most curious place to live in*. *May be* expresses the assertion—it is the *copula*. *A most curious place to live in* expresses what is asserted of the subject—it is the *predicate-attribute*. The words, *a Brownie*, denote the subject of the second judgment—they are the *entire subject* of the second simple sentence. The group of words, *is a curious creature*, expresses both the assertion and what is asserted of the subject—it is the *entire predicate*. The assertion is expressed by *is*—the *copula*. That which is asserted of the Brownie is expressed by the words, *a curious creature*, which makes the *predicate-attribute*. The copula and attribute are not united in one word in either sentence. The conjunction *but* connects the two simple sentences.

[Pupils should not be taught any exact form of expressing themselves in analyzing these sentences. The purpose is to have each one think out the relations of the words to the ideas they express, and state them in his own language. A formal analysis, where every child follows the same order, is apt to become very mechanical. Be satisfied if the pupil shows that he understands these relations, and expresses his understanding intelligently. He will learn to do it in good form by practice.]

Once a little Brownie lived in a coal-cellar.

(*Lived* has what two uses?)

He is a sober, stay-at-home, household elf.

"This will never do," said he.

Oh, how proud the little girl was!

The frosty mist was beginning to rise, and the sun was a ball of red-hot iron.

All the family were very flourishing, except the little Brownie.

Whene'er a noble deed is wrought,

Whene'er is spoken a noble thought,

Our hearts, in glad surprise,

To higher levels rise.

Three Kings came riding from far away.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,

The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,

The plowman homeward plods his weary way,

And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Our very hopes belied our fears,

Our fears our hopes belied;

We thought her dying when she slept,

And sleeping when she died.

[The teacher should bear in mind the suggestion that the pupils should practice upon sentences that have little literary content before studying those selected from literature. The selection of the former exercises this book leaves to the teacher.]

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

[The following exercise is the first of a series of studies in Thought Analysis that will be continued in the chapters following. The leading purpose is to give the pupils practice in interpreting literature, and, incidentally, to cultivate their feeling for a good literary style. The grammatical analysis will not be made prominent, but it will not be neglected altogether. The pupils ought to commit to memory these selections for thought analysis. They are all good literature.]

160. The sun's a thief, and with his great attraction
Robs the vast sea ; the moon is an arrant thief,
And her pale face she snatches from the sun ;
The sea's a thief whose liquid surge resolves the moon
into salt tears.

What separate thoughts unite to make the whole of
thought ?

What does the sun steal from the sea ? How ?

How does the moon steal her face from the sun ?

How does the sea steal from the moon ?

How does it resolve the moon into salt tears ?

Describe in your own language the picture painted by
the poet.

CHAPTER VIII.

ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE.

WHAT AN ELEMENT OF THE SENTENCE IS.

161. Since a sentence is made up of parts of speech, it follows that every word that is a part of speech, and every phrase and clause used as a part of speech, is an element of the sentence. Every sentence has as many elements in it as it has words, or groups of words, used as parts of speech.

ESSENTIAL PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

162. Since every thought must have (1) a subject, and (2) that which is thought of the subject, it follows that every sentence must have a word or words that express the thought-subject, and one or more words that express the thought-predicate. These are called the **essential parts** of a sentence.

The essential parts of a sentence are

- (1) All the words that make the *subject*, and
- (2) All those that make the *predicate*.

163. Point out the essential parts in each of the following sentences:

Stars shine.

The twinkling stars in the sky look down upon the revolving earth.

A little child shall lead them.

The breezes of the morning moved the shadows to and fro.

Who taught the bee with winds and rains to strive?

How fading are the joys we dote upon!

Cast thou thy bread upon the waters.

On Linden, when the sun was low,

All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.

164. You have learned that the words, phrases, and clauses that constitute the elements of the sentence fill different offices in expressing the thought. Since in every thought there must be an object-idea (subject), an asserting-idea (copula), and an idea that is asserted of the subject (predicate-attributive), so that every simple sentence must have a word or words to express the subject, a word or phrase to express the assertion, and one or more words to express the thought-predicate; as, *Sugar is sweet; The earth is a sphere; The sun is a ball of fire.* These are called the principal elements of the sentence.

On page 00 you learned that two of these elements may be combined in an attributive verb; as, *Dogs bark.* The verb *bark* expresses both the *assertion* and the *predicate-attribute* of action.

EXERCISE.

165. Point out the principal elements in the following sentences:

Birds are singing.

Spring is coming.

The thunder roars.

Exercise strengthens.

In which of these are the two elements combined in one word?

MODIFYING ELEMENTS.

The **modifying elements** in the sentence make more definite the meaning of the elements they modify; as, The *giddy* multitude are *seldom* judicious *in their approval*.

166. Words, phrases, and clauses used to make more definite the meaning of other sentence elements are **modifying elements**.

167. Point out both the *principal* and the *modifying* elements in the following. First divide each sentence into its two essential parts, entire subject and entire predicate.

The miller ground the corn.

Mary lives in a beautiful house.

The people pay taxes.

The state taxes the people.

Two robin-redbreasts built their nest in a hollow tree.

Night sank upon the dusky beach and on the purple sea

Dr. Johnson treated Mrs. Siddons with great politeness.

No useless coffin inclosed his breast.

A thing of beauty is a joy forever.

Things are not what they seem.

I believe that James is honest.

That you have wronged me doth appear in this.

CONNECTING ELEMENTS.

You have learned that (1) the *preposition*, (2) the *conjunction*, and (3) the *copula*, are used as the connecting or linking elements in the sentence.

The copula unites two ideas by asserting one of the other. It belongs, therefore, to both the principal and the connecting elements of a sentence.

168. The **connecting elements** are those that unite other elements of the sentence.

169. Three classes of elements are found in sentences:

- | | | | | |
|------------------------|---|----------------|---|----------------------|
| 1. Principal elements | { | Subj. | { | Copula. |
| | | Pred. | | Predicate-attribute. |
| 2. Modifying elements | { | Adj. modifiers | { | Words. |
| | | Adv. modifiers | | Phrases. |
| | | | | Clauses. |
| 3. Connecting elements | { | Prep. | { | |
| | | Conj. | | |
| | | Copula. | | |

Define each element.

[It is often best to encourage the pupils to formulate for themselves definitions that shall contain all the ideas that these should have, so far as they have yet discovered them. There is no training that gives better results in exact thinking than to encourage the children to construct accurate definitions.]

THE COMPLETE SUBJECT OF THE SENTENCE.

170. When we say, "*A city set on a hill* cannot be hid," it requires all the italicized words to express fully the subject of thought. If one should say, "A city cannot be hid," leaving out of the subject the modifying part, he would fail to express this thought.

171. The **complete subject** of a sentence is the noun or its equivalent which denotes the principal idea in the subject, together with all of its modifiers.

It follows, therefore, that the *incomplete subject* is the noun or its equivalent which denotes the principal idea in the subject, without its modifying words; as, "The *man* on the house-top came down." In this sentence *man* is the *unmodified subject*.

Define the incomplete subject. } Pupils make definitions.
 Define the complete subject. }

172. Point out the *incomplete* and the *complete* subject in each of the following sentences :

Many people thought Arthur the rightful king.

Her beauty made me glad.

Under the walls of Monterey,
 At daybreak the bugles began to play.

His tuneful brethren all were dead.

All day the low-hung clouds
 Have dropped their garnered fullness down.

[Give many additional exercises if needed.]

173. The Complete Predicate. It will be apparent that the predicate of a sentence may also be either complete or incomplete; *The birds sang sweetly in the morning.* Point out the complete predicate; the incomplete predicate.

174. The complete predicate includes all the words which are used to express all that is thought of the subject; as, Wolsey's career *ended in disgrace.*

175. The incomplete predicate is the word or words that express the principal idea in the predicate, together with the assertion; as, *We live* in better times. (Verb *live.*) The spring *will follow* the winter. (*Will follow* is a verb-phrase.)

176. The incomplete predicate may be—

1. An attributive verb; as, The convention *adopted* the report. (What is an attributive verb?) Express the copula and attribute in *adopted* in separate words.

2. The copula and an attribute-word; as, The storm *was*

raging with great fury. (Attribute of action.) The apple *is good* for food. (Attribute of quality.)

3. The copula, and a noun which denotes the same thing as the subject; as, "Cuba is an island."

(Class is predicated of the subject, and the name of the class is given also. To classify an object is to express an attribute of it.)

NOTE.—*Be* is sometimes an attributive verb; as, "God is." (Exists or is existing.) But it is generally a pure copula; as, "Art *is* long." This does not mean that art *exists* long; it simply affirms the quality long of *art*.

[Too much pains can hardly be taken in the development of the thought expressed in each definition *before it is embodied in a statement*. Those teachers who once fairly enter upon the movement of thought in this book will see to it that the pupils approach every new topic from the thought side. This will best show that language is the expression of thought, and its most perfect symbol.]

EXERCISE.

177. Point out the complete and the incomplete predicates in the following sentences:

The crows flew over by twos and threes.

Rudely carved was the porch, with seats beneath.

This is the forest primeval.

The branches of the trees were swaying back and forth in the wind.

An old sailor was smoking his pipe near the cottage

The owl has no company-manners.

A bright fire sparkled merrily on the hearth.

The cricket ceased chirping.

The magic of sunlight brings out the summer dress of the trees.

The boy trudged wearily along.

Your watch and your good intentions need to be regularly wound up.

Evangeline was the pride of the village.

The day is cold and dark and dreary.

The earth is a planet.

Lions are carnivorous animals.

Man wants but little here below.

Honor and shame from no condition rise.

The robin and the wren are flown,

And from the shrubs the jay.

The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

The south wind searches for the flowers,

Whose fragrance late he bore.

Many a word at random spoken

May soothe or wound a heart that's broken.

The charities that soothe, or heal, or bless,

Are scattered at the feet of man like flowers.

At last a soft and solemn breathing sound

Rose like a stream of rich distilled perfumes,

And stole upon the air.

MODIFYING ELEMENTS.

178. The *principal elements* of the sentence are those necessary to the existence of any sentence whatever. Every sentence must have a *subject* and a *predicate*. But you have learned that a sentence may have modifying elements, whose office it is to make the meaning of other words more definite.

179. A **modifying element** is any word, phrase, or clause that is used to make the meaning of another element of the sentence more definite.

180. Word-Modifiers. You have learned that *adjective-words* modify the meaning of nouns. They are of four classes:

(1.) **Adjectives**; as, The *wintry* wind is chill.

(2.) Possessives; as, The *winter's* wind is chill.

(3.) Appositives; as, The winds of the season, *winter*, are chill.

(4.) Participles; as, The winds *blowing* in winter are chill.

Note that in each sentence the word in *Italics* makes the meaning of some noun more definite. They are all of the class of *adjective-modifiers*.

Possessives and appositives are new terms, but the ideas they express are not new. The meaning is practically the same whether we say "The light of the sun" or "The sun's light." The possessive in the last expression performs the office of an adjective.

So, too, when we speak of "John, the carpenter," the word *carpenter* is used to express the characteristic of John by which he is known from the other Johns in the community. This peculiar adjective-use of the noun is known as the appositive.

Justify the use of these words from the dictionary.

[Give the pupils more practice in forming thoughts that require the use of these classes of adjective-modifiers. Keep up the practice of having the pupils test one another by giving skeleton quotations to be filled by members of the class.]

181. Phrase and Clause Modifiers. The incomplete subject may be modified also by an adjective *phrase*; as, The winds *of winter* are chill.

The incomplete subject may be modified by an adjective *clause*; as, Winds *which blow in the winter* are chill.

EXERCISES.

182. Point out the modifiers of the incomplete subject in each of the following sentences, and state whether it is a word, phrase, or clause modifier.

The pear trees in our orchard are in bloom

Several Spanish ships were destroyed.

The Northern Lights, golden and purple and red, streaming from the horizon to the zenith, lit up the scene with a spectral glare.

The old man who saw the accident could give no help.

The time when the battle was fought is not known.

The place which we are seeking was the home of General Grant.

All hope of rescue was gone.

A fluffy yellow chicken with a plaintive voice was telling a tale of woe to the mother-hen.

John's and Henry's bicycles are on the porch. (Possessive modifiers.)

A STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

183. But mostly he watched with eager search
The belfry tower of the old North Church,
As it rose above the graves on the hill,
Lonely, and spectral, and somber, and still.
And lo! as he looks on the belfry's height,
A glimmer and then a gleam of light!
He springs to the saddle, the bridle he turns.
But lingers and gazes till full on his sight
A second lamp in the belfry burns.

Who was the watcher?

What was the occasion?

What do the adjectives in the fourth line describe?

What is the difference between a glimmer and a gleam of light?

What picture does this change from a glimmer to a gleam suggest?

What is the meaning of turning his bridle?

Why does he linger?

What is at stake?

Was it day or night?

What does *mostly* suggest?

Describe his watching.
 What did he watch?
 Where was it?
 What picture does *graves* suggest?
 What does *lo!* suggest?
 What does the "second lamp" suggest?
 Describe the ride after you have read the poem.
 What is the name of the poem?
 Who wrote it?

MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE.

When the predicate is incomplete its meaning is made more definite by the use of modifying words, phrases, and clauses.

184. Objective Modifiers. Actions often concern one or more objects beside the doer. In predicating action of the doer, we often find it necessary to add to the verb one or more words expressing ideas of objects. For instance, if one should say, "The tailor makes," the hearer would naturally say, "Makes what?" If you say, "The tailor makes clothing," you have made definite the meaning of the verb by naming the object produced. The action of making has been limited to clothing.

Such objects are called **direct objective modifiers**.

To what objects are the actions of the subjects in the following judgments limited?

Cats catch mice.

Mice fear cats.

Soldiers fight battles.

Job showed patience.

Romulus founded Rome.

Ravens fed Elijah.

[The pupil should be led to make many thoughts involving ideas of actions that need object-ideas to complete them, and should point out the resulting objective elements in the sentences. The pupils

are not familiar with the use of object-ideas in limiting the meaning of verbs. They have learned that one class of adjectives limit the meaning of nouns without expressing either quality or action. They are now to learn that a noun or a pronoun may limit an action to a certain object, and so modify the meaning of the attributive verb. It is a modification by restricting the action to the object named. When we say, *John struck*, the action is not restricted. But in *John struck the ball*, the action is limited to the object, *ball*, and the meaning of *struck* is made more definite than it was before.]

185. Indirect Objective Modifiers. Some actions can be limited by two kinds of objects. If I say, "My father gave a knife to me," the direct object of the giving is the knife; but the action of giving is limited also to *me*, for he gave it to me, and not to some other person.

Such modifiers of objects are called **indirect objective modifiers**.

In the sentence, *Frank gave his sister an apple*, which is the direct object of the giving? Which indirect? Note that the preposition in the indirect object is not always used.

Point out the *indirect* and the *direct* objective modifiers in the following:

The master taught his pupils French.

My mother sent me a letter.

The boy gave the beggar a penny.

Mary bought herself a pair of shoes.

The man told us the truth.

A friend offered us his carriage.

The florist sold the lady some beautiful flowers.

The servant will bring you some water.

[If the pupils are studying Latin, they should see that the indirect objective modifier in English corresponds to the noun in the dative case in Latin. These examples for practice should be multiplied indefinitely until the class becomes familiar with the two different classes of ideas which these two classes of modifiers express, the direct and the indirect object.]

OBJECTIVE-COMPLEMENT.

186. There is another class of actions that are limited by a direct object; as, "They elected Lincoln," and also by an idea which is the *effect of the action* upon the direct object; as, "They elected Lincoln president." The word *president* is called the *objective-complement*. The word *Lincoln* is the direct object.

187. The *objective-complement* is not readily distinguished by young beginners from the indirect object. It is well to have a simple example to which the class can always return as a key to the difficulty that confronts them. In the sentence, "They made me a house," it is clear that *house* is the direct object, and *me* the indirect. But if they made me a *citizen* instead, the meaning is very different. *Me* denotes the direct object of the action, and *citizen* what I am after the act of enfranchising has been performed—an objective-complement. It expresses object after being completed by the action of making (enfranchising).

The objective-complement may be expressed—

- (1) By a noun; as, He called his dog *Rover*; or
- (2) By an infinitive; as, He made the man (to) *run*; or
- (3) By an adjective; as, He painted the box *green*; or
- (4) By a noun of like signification to the action; as, He ran a *race*; He taught the boy *letters*; etc.

This objective-complement is sometimes called the *factive* object. (See dictionary.) The peculiarity of the objective-complement is, that it may be expressed by other parts of speech than the noun, and that it expresses the effect or result of the action upon the direct object in the judgment.

188. Point out the *objective-complements* in the following, and state to which sub-class each belongs:

The government made him treasurer.

They esteemed him judicious.

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